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(54) **ELECTRICAL DEVICES WITH GRAPHENE ON BORON NITRIDE**

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See application file for complete search history.

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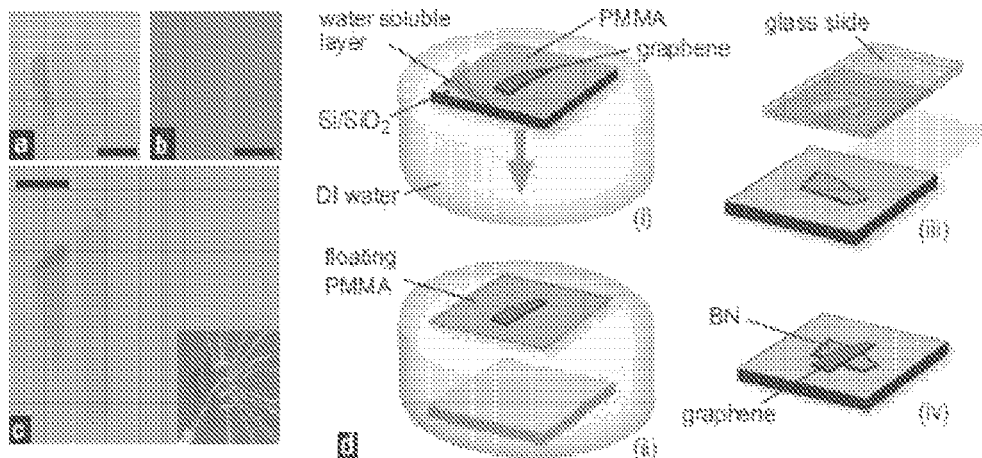
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(57) **ABSTRACT**

Methods of forming and resulting devices are described that include graphene devices on boron nitride. Selected methods of forming and resulting devices include graphene field effect transistors (GFETs) including boron nitride.

6 Claims, 14 Drawing Sheets



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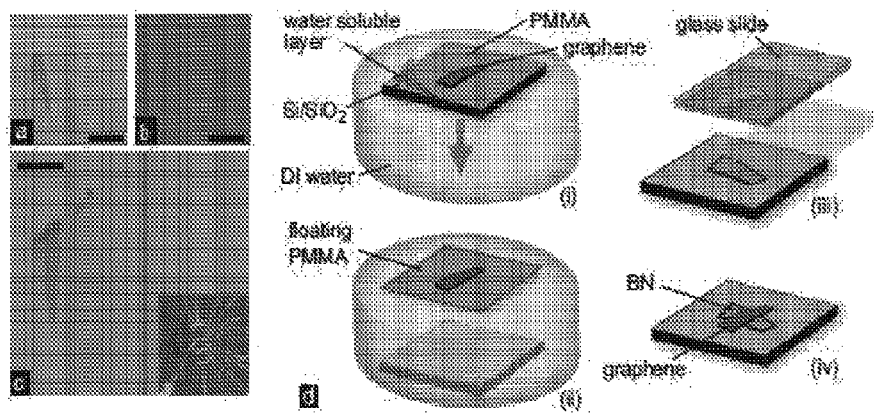
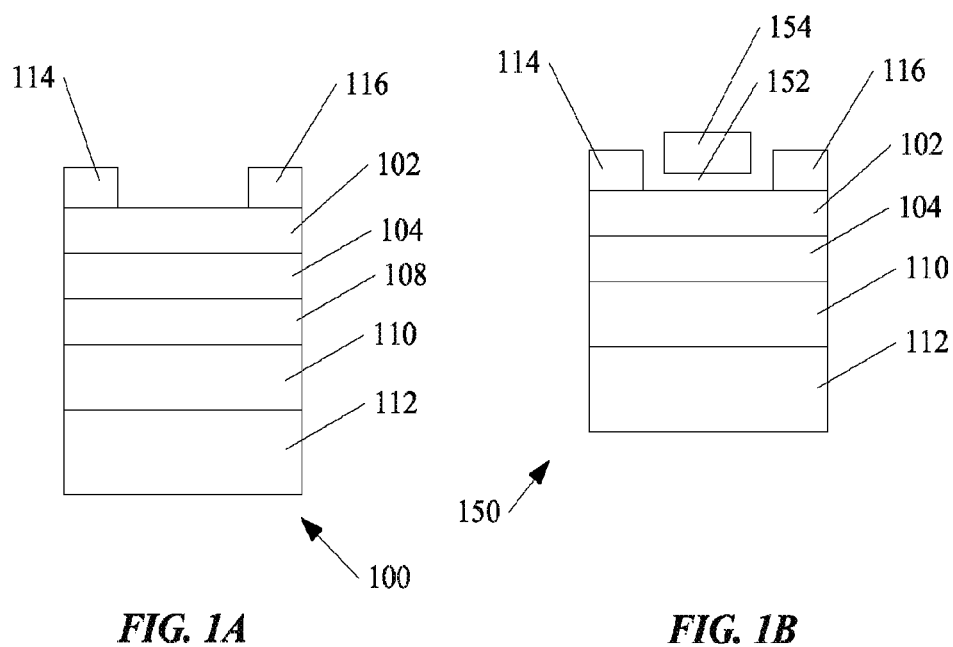
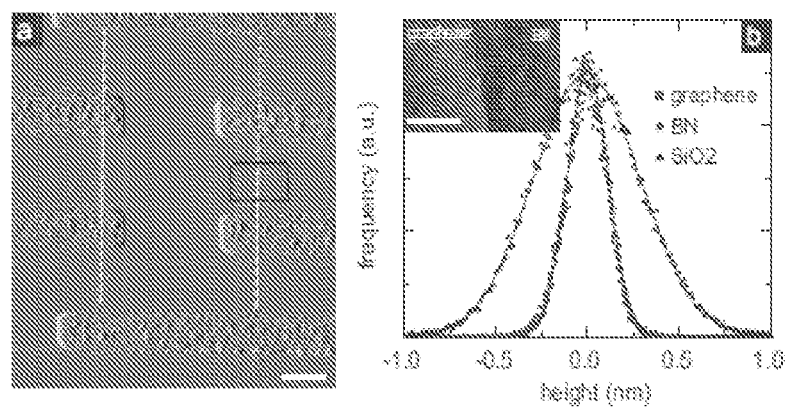


FIG. 2

**FIG. 3**

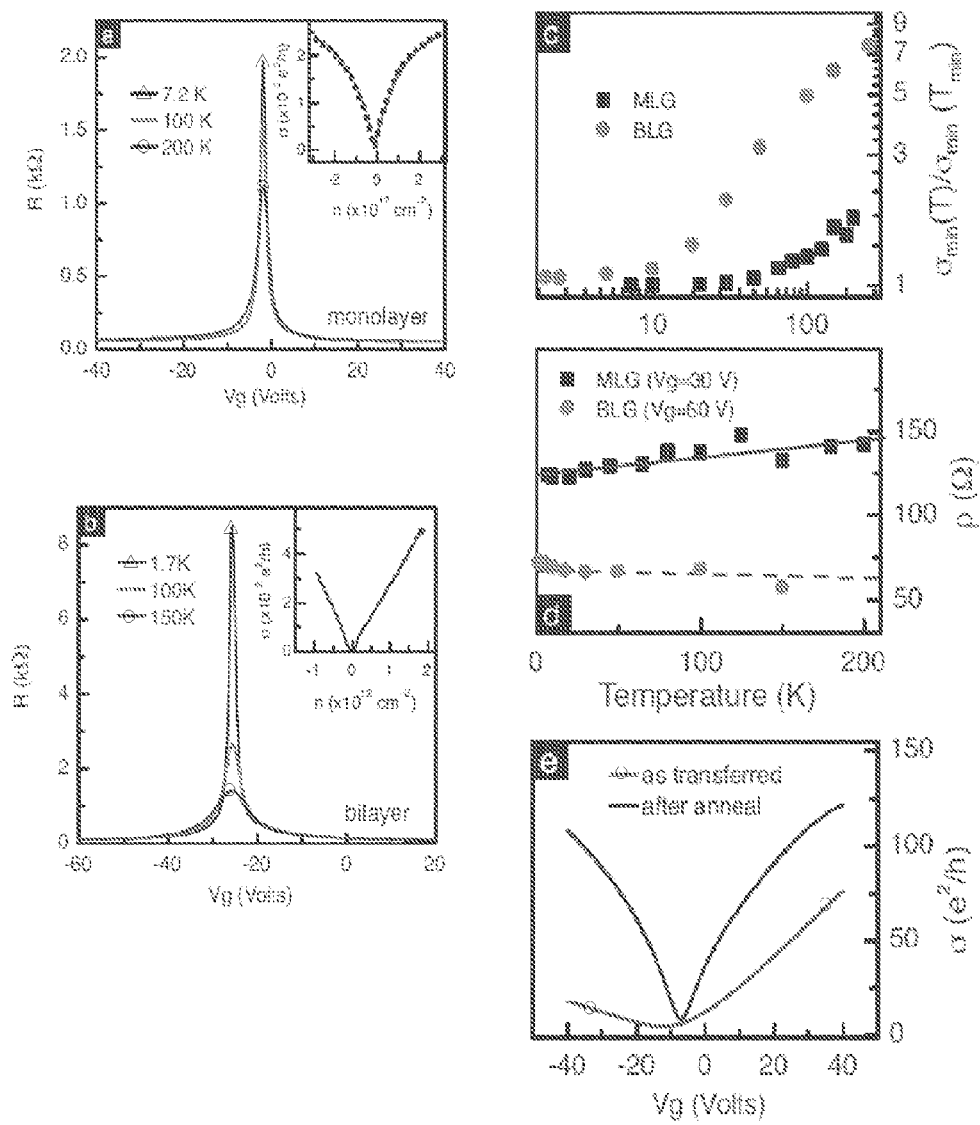
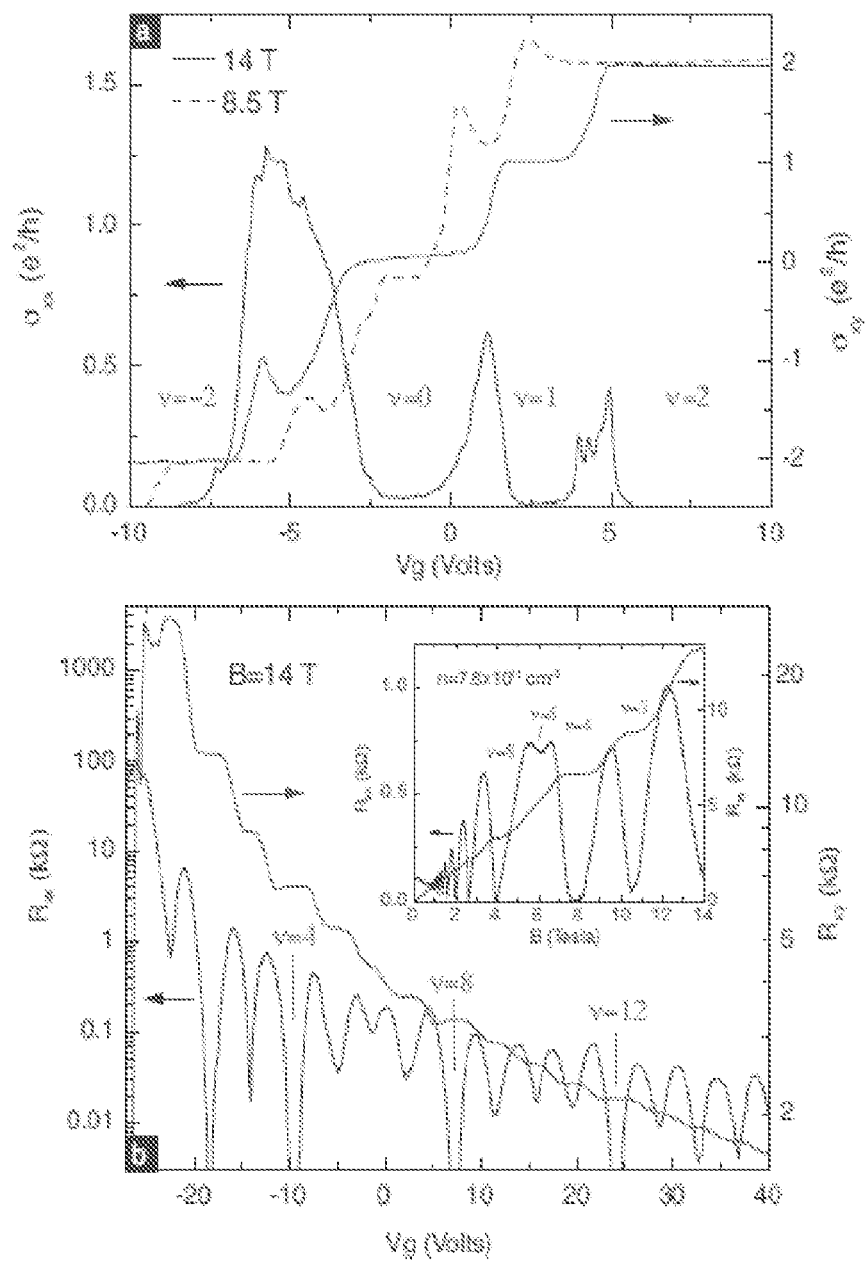


FIG. 4

**FIG. 5**

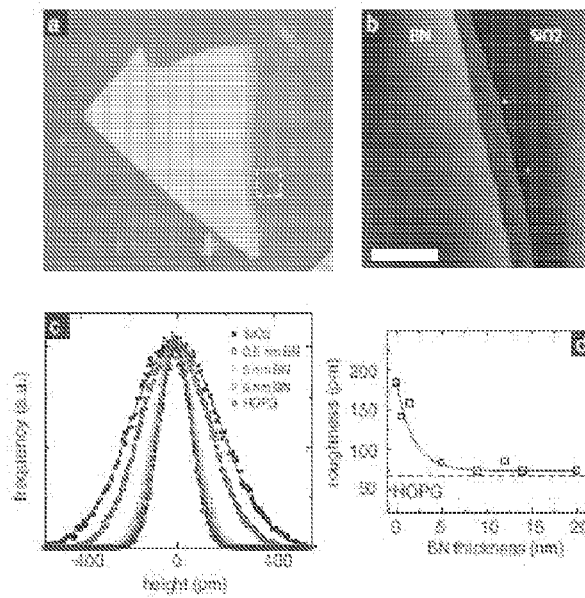


FIG. 6

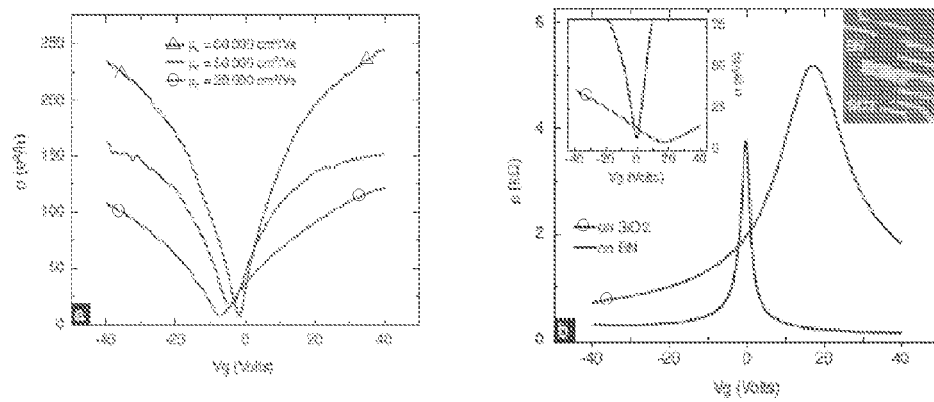


FIG. 7

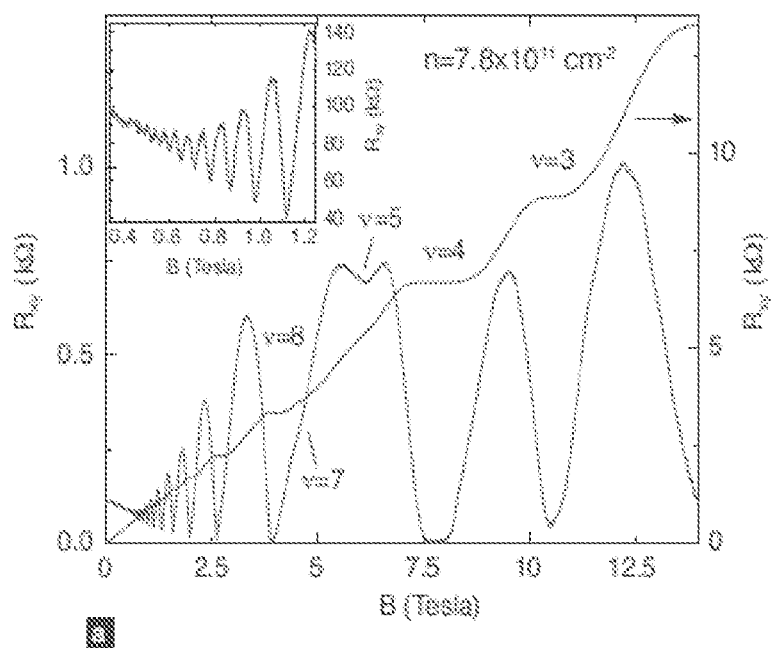


FIG. 8

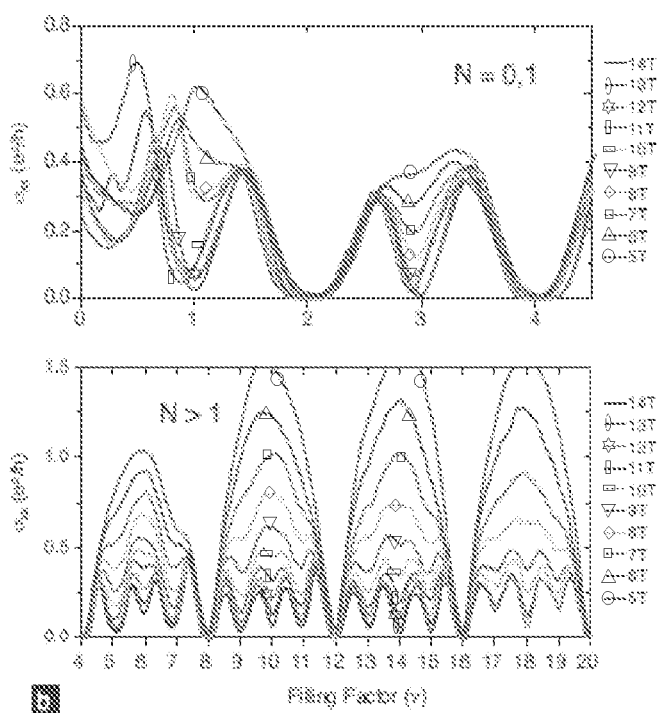
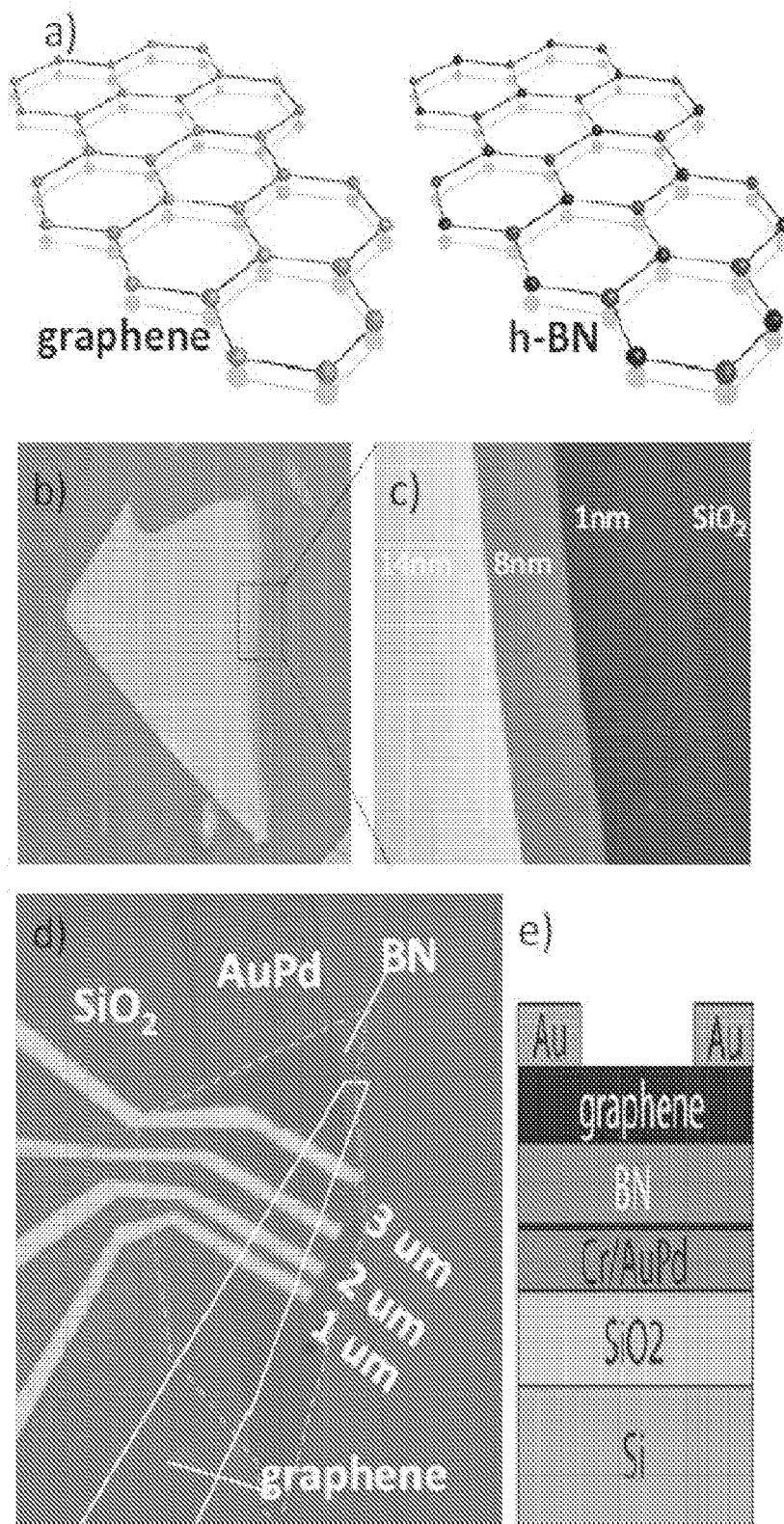
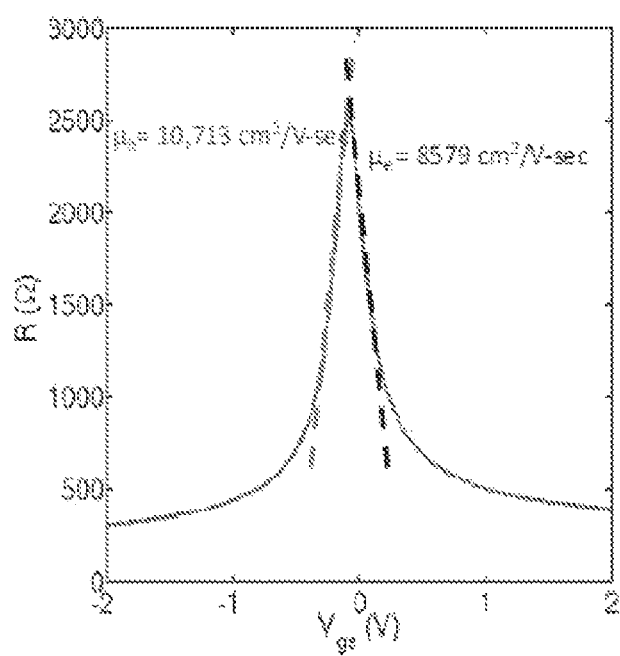
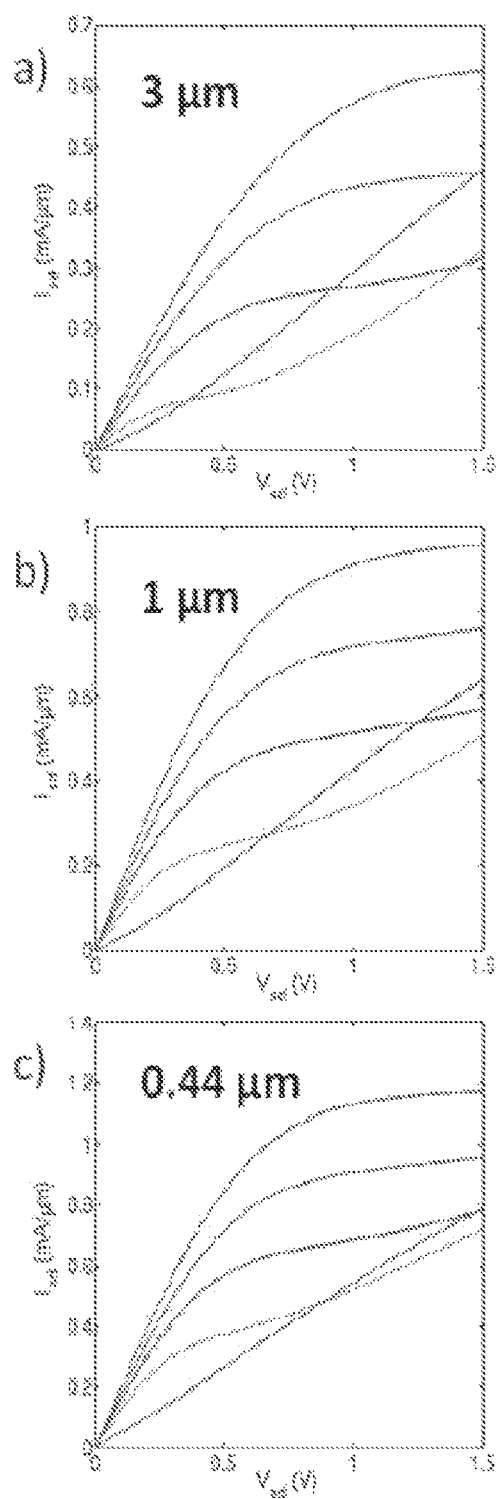
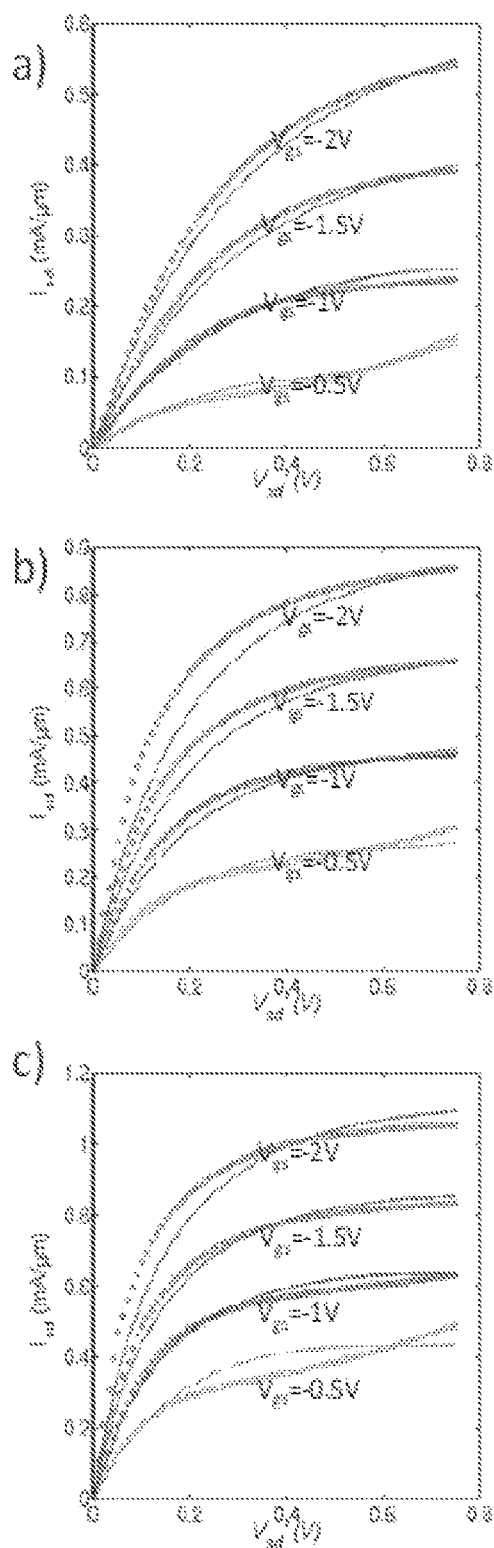


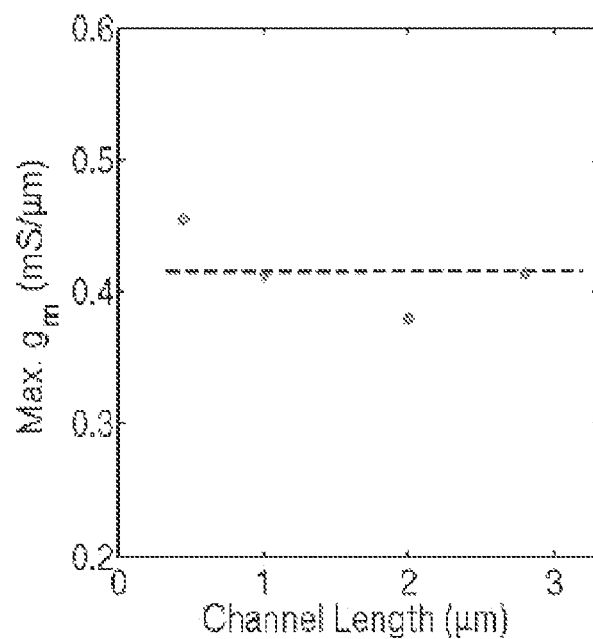
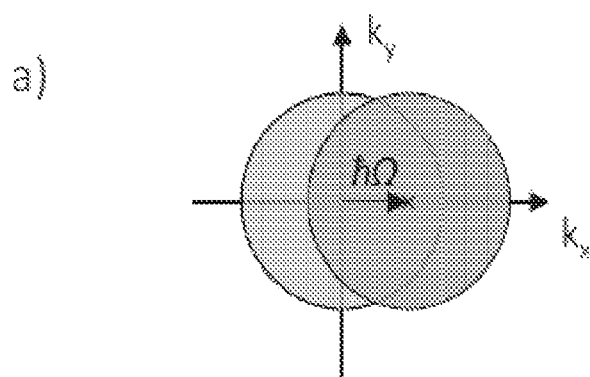
FIG. 9

**FIG. 10**

**FIG. 11**

**FIG. 12**

**FIG. 13**

**FIG. 14**

b)

$$n(x) = \sqrt{n_0^2 + \left(\frac{C_F}{e} (V_{g0} - V_g - V(x)) \right)^2} \quad (\text{Eq. 1})$$

$$v_d(x) = \frac{\mu E}{1 + \mu E / v_{sat}} \quad (\text{Eq. 2})$$

$$v_{sat} = \frac{2\sqrt{(k_y - \Omega)^2 (\Omega^2 + \Omega^2) E} \left[-\frac{4k_y \Omega}{(k_y - \Omega)^2} - (k_y^2 + \Omega^2) E \left[-\frac{4k_y \Omega}{(k_y - \Omega)^2} \right] \right]}{3\hbar^2 \pi \Omega} \quad (\text{Eq. 3})$$

$$v_{sat} \approx v_F \frac{\hbar \Omega}{E_{F,L}} \quad \text{for } \hbar \Omega \ll E_F \quad (\text{Eq. 4})$$

$$I_d = \frac{W}{L} d \int_0^L n(x) v_d(x) dx \quad (\text{Eq. 5})$$

FIG. 15

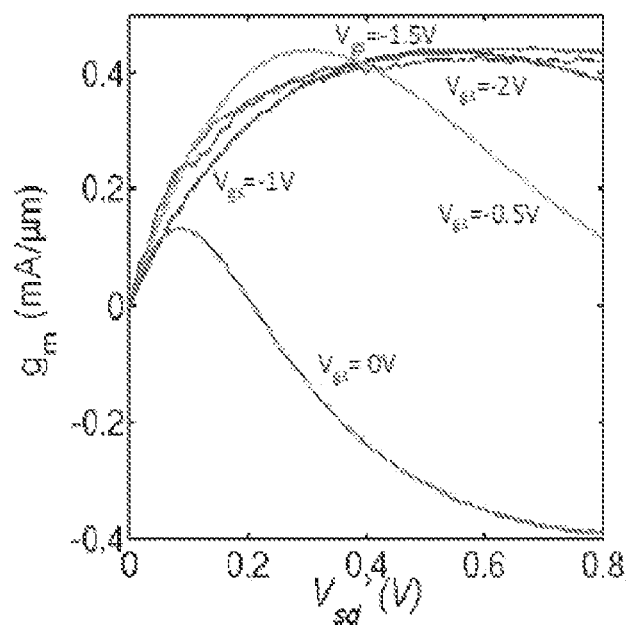


FIG. 16

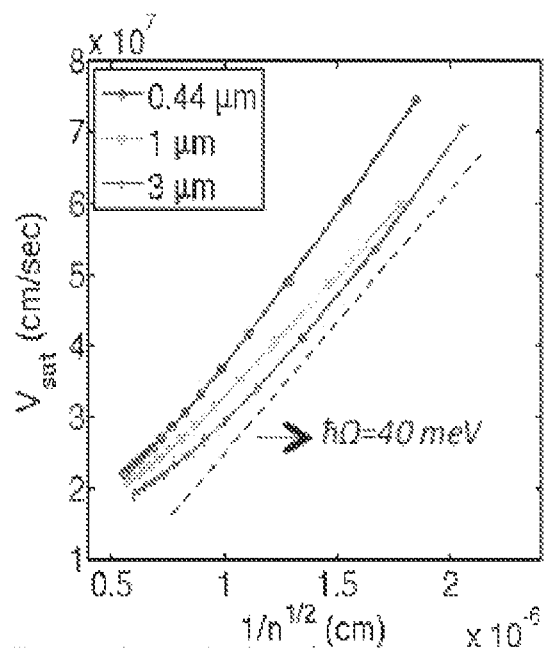
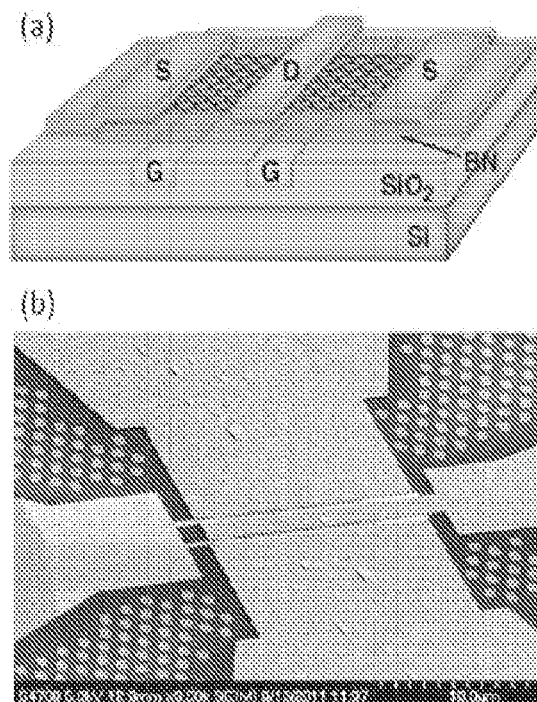
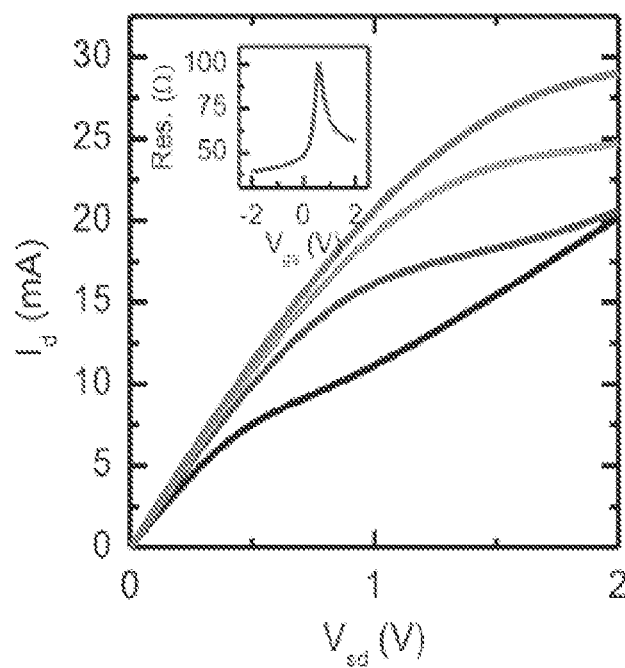
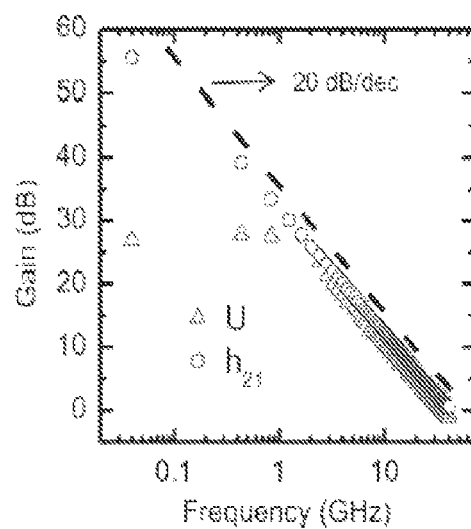
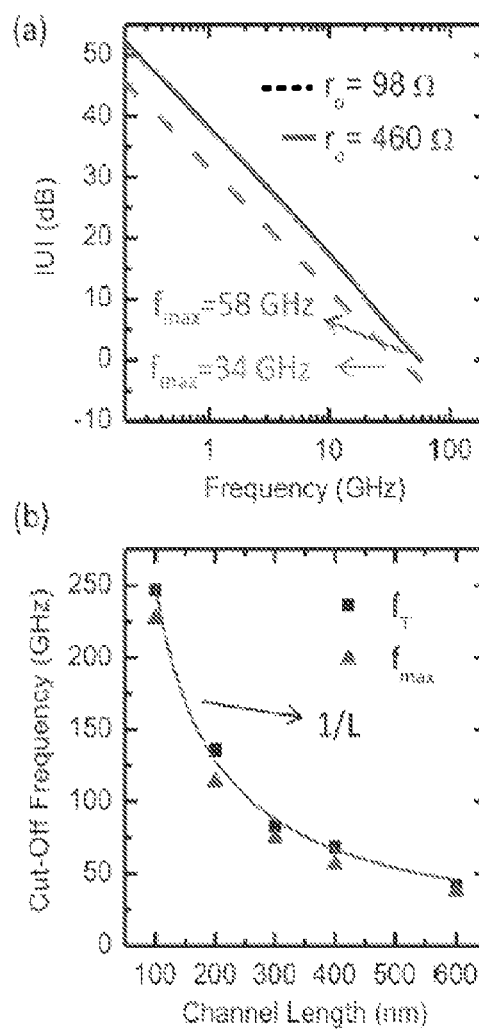


FIG. 17

*FIG. 18**FIG. 19*

**FIG. 20****FIG. 21**

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ELECTRICAL DEVICES WITH GRAPHENE ON BORON NITRIDE

CROSS-REFERENCE TO RELATED PATENT DOCUMENTS

This patent application is a U.S. National Stage Application under 35 U.S.C. 371 of PCT/US2011/066620, filed Dec. 21, 2011, and published on Jun. 28, 2012 as WO 2012/088334, which claims the benefit of priority under 35 U.S.C. Section 119(e), to U.S. Provisional Patent Application Ser. No. 61/425,636, entitled "ELECTRICAL DEVICES WITH GRAPHENE ON BORON NITRIDE," filed on Dec. 21, 2010; which applications are incorporated by reference herein in their entirety.

STATEMENT REGARDING FEDERALLY SPONSORED RESEARCH OR DEVELOPMENT

This invention was made with government support from the Defense Advanced Research Projects Agency (DARPA). The government has certain rights in this invention.

TECHNICAL FIELD

Various embodiments described herein relate to electrical devices, and methods associated with graphene.

BACKGROUND

Graphene can be described as a two-dimensional sheet of covalently-bonded carbon atoms. For example, three-dimensional graphite can include sheets of graphene, and a one-dimension carbon nanotube can include a graphene wall (e.g., forming a single-wall carbon nanotube). An obstacle to development of a graphene-based electronic device, such as a graphene field-effect transistor (GFET), can be the surface supporting the graphene.

OVERVIEW

The present electronic devices and methods utilizing graphene provide improvements in manufacturing and device performance. To better illustrate the electronic devices and methods utilizing graphene, a non-limiting list of examples is now provided:

In Example 1, an electronic device includes a boron nitride surface with a graphene layer over the boron nitride surface having a non-zero degree of lattice mismatch, and one or more electrical contacts on the graphene layer.

In Example 2, the electronic device of Example 1 is optionally configured such that the one or more electrical contacts include a pair of source/drain regions having a graphene channel region located therebetween, and a gate electrode located adjacent to the graphene channel region to form a transistor.

In Example 3, the electronic device of any one or any combination of Examples 1-2 is optionally configured such that the non-zero degree of lattice mismatch includes rotation about a line normal to an interface plane between a lattice in the graphene layer and a lattice in the boron nitride surface.

In Example 4, the electronic device of any one or any combination of Examples 1-3 is optionally configured such that the boron nitride surface includes a boron nitride layer over a substrate.

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In Example 5, the electronic device of any one or any combination of Examples 1-4 is optionally configured such that the gate electrode is below the graphene channel region.

In Example 6, the electronic device of any one or any combination of Examples 1-5 is optionally configured such that the gate electrode is separated from the graphene channel region by the boron nitride layer.

In Example 7, the electronic device of any one or any combination of Examples 1-6 is optionally configured such that the gate electrode is above the graphene channel region.

In Example 8, the electronic device of any one or any combination of Examples 1-7 is optionally configured such that the transistor is formed on a silicon substrate.

In Example 9, the electronic device of any one or any combination of Examples 1-8 is optionally configured such that the transistor is formed on an SiO₂ layer on the silicon substrate.

In Example 10, a method of forming an electronic device includes forming a graphene layer and mechanically placing the graphene layer on a boron nitride layer wherein the graphene layer is placed with a non-zero degree of lattice mismatch with the boron nitride layer, and attaching one or more electrical contacts to the graphene layer.

In Example 11, the method of Example 10 is optionally configured such that forming the graphene layer includes forming the layer on a separate substrate using chemical vapor deposition techniques.

In Example 12, the method of any one or any combination of Examples 10-11 is optionally configured such that using chemical vapor deposition techniques includes forming on a copper catalyst layer.

In Example 13, the method of any one or any combination of Examples 10-12 is optionally configured such that using chemical vapor deposition techniques includes forming on a nickel catalyst layer.

In Example 14, the method of any one or any combination of Examples 10-13 is optionally configured to further include forming the boron nitride layer using chemical vapor deposition techniques.

In Example 15, the method of any one or any combination of Examples 10-14 is optionally configured such that forming the boron nitride layer using chemical vapor deposition techniques includes forming on a copper catalyst layer.

In Example 16, the method of any one or any combination of Examples 10-15 is optionally configured such that forming the boron nitride layer using chemical vapor deposition techniques includes forming on a nickel catalyst layer.

In Example 17, a method of forming a graphene field effect transistor includes forming a graphene layer using chemical vapor deposition techniques, mechanically placing the graphene layer on a boron nitride layer, wherein the graphene layer is placed with a non-zero degree of lattice mismatch with the boron nitride layer, forming a pair of source/drain regions coupled to the graphene layer, defining a graphene channel region located therebetween, and coupling a gate electrode adjacent to the graphene channel region, and electrically separated from the graphene channel region.

In Example 18, the method of Example 17 is optionally configured such that the forming the graphene layer using chemical vapor deposition techniques includes forming the graphene layer using a sacrificial catalyst layer.

In Example 19, the method of any one or any combination of Examples 17-18 is optionally configured such that forming the graphene layer using a sacrificial catalyst layer includes forming the graphene layer using a metallic catalyst layer.

In Example 20, a method of forming a graphene field effect transistor includes forming a pair of source/drain regions on a

graphene layer, defining a graphene channel region located therebetween, forming a boron nitride layer using chemical vapor deposition techniques, mechanically placing the boron nitride layer on the graphene layer, forming an interface having a non-zero degree of lattice mismatch with the graphene channel region, and coupling a gate electrode adjacent to the graphene channel region, and electrically separated from the graphene channel region.

In Example 21, the method of Example 20 is optionally configured such that forming the boron nitride layer using chemical vapor deposition techniques includes forming the boron nitride layer using a sacrificial catalyst layer.

In Example 22, the method of any one or any combination of Examples 20-21 is optionally configured such that forming the boron nitride layer using a sacrificial catalyst layer includes forming the boron nitride layer using a metallic catalyst layer.

These and other examples and features of the present electronic devices and methods utilizing graphene, and related methods will be set forth in part in the following detailed description. This overview is intended to provide non-limiting examples of the present subject matter—it is not intended to provide an exclusive or exhaustive explanation. The detailed description below is included to provide further information about the present molds, mold systems, and methods.

BRIEF DESCRIPTION OF THE DRAWINGS

FIG. 1A shows a transistor according to an embodiment of the invention.

FIG. 1B shows another transistor according to an embodiment of the invention.

FIG. 2 shows a method of forming an electrical device according to an embodiment of the invention.

FIG. 3 shows a surface roughness comparison of electrical devices according to an embodiment of the invention.

FIG. 4 shows graphs of electrical characteristics of graphene devices according to embodiments of the invention.

FIG. 5 shows graphs of electrical and magnetic characteristics of graphene devices according to embodiments of the invention.

FIG. 6 shows a surface roughness comparison of electrical devices according to an embodiment of the invention.

FIG. 7 shows graphs of electrical characteristics of graphene devices according to embodiments of the invention.

FIG. 8 shows graphs of electrical and magnetic characteristics of graphene devices according to embodiments of the invention.

FIG. 9 shows graphs of electrical and magnetic characteristics of graphene devices according to embodiments of the invention.

FIG. 10 shows atomic structure and macroscopic configurations of graphene devices according to embodiments of the invention.

FIG. 11 shows graphs of electrical characteristics of graphene devices according to embodiments of the invention.

FIG. 12 shows graphs of electrical characteristics of graphene devices according to embodiments of the invention.

FIG. 13 shows graphs of electrical characteristics of graphene devices according to embodiments of the invention.

FIG. 14 shows graphs of electrical characteristics of graphene devices according to embodiments of the invention.

FIG. 15 shows selected modeling parameters of graphene devices according to embodiments of the invention.

FIG. 16 shows graphs of electrical characteristics of graphene devices according to embodiments of the invention.

FIG. 17 shows graphs of electrical characteristics of graphene devices according to embodiments of the invention.

FIG. 18 shows an isometric representation of graphene devices according to embodiments of the invention.

FIG. 19 shows graphs of electrical characteristics of graphene devices according to embodiments of the invention.

FIG. 20 shows graphs of electrical characteristics of graphene devices according to embodiments of the invention.

FIG. 21 shows graphs of electrical characteristics of graphene devices according to embodiments of the invention.

DETAILED DESCRIPTION

Methods of forming and resulting devices are described that include graphene devices on boron nitride. Selected methods and resulting devices include graphene field effect transistors (GFETs) including boron nitride.

FIG. 1A illustrates generally a section view of a device **100** that can include an electronic device having a graphene layer **102**. In the example shown, the device **100** includes a transistor, although the invention is not so limited. Other electronic devices utilizing a graphene layer with improved electrical properties as described below are also contemplated. FIG. 1A also illustrates a boron nitride (BN) layer **104** directly adjacent to the graphene layer **102**.

In an example, the boron nitride layer **104** serves as a dielectric layer, that electrically separates the graphene layer **102** from a gate **108**. In an example the gate **108** includes a metal or metal alloy. In an example the gate **108** includes more than one layer of conductors to improve interfacial compatibility. Examples of metals or metal layers include chromium, gold, and palladium.

FIG. 1A further illustrates a substrate **112**. In an example, the substrate **112** includes silicon. In an example, a silicon substrate **112** includes a silicon oxide layer **110**.

FIG. 1A further shows, one or more electrodes lithographically fabricated or otherwise formed as a portion of the device **100**. For example, in FIG. 1A, a first electrode **114** and a second electrode **116** can be located on the graphene layer **102**, such as spaced apart laterally along the graphene layer **102**. In the example of FIG. 1, the graphene layer **102** can be transferred to or otherwise affixed or grown on the boron nitride layer **104**. In an example, the graphene layer **102** is grown on a separate surface, for example by chemical vapor deposition (CVD) techniques, then transferred to the boron nitride layer **104**. In an example, the boron nitride layer **104**, can be grown on a separate surface, for example by chemical vapor deposition (CVD) techniques, then transferred to a position in the device **100**.

In an example of separate surface fabrication, a graphene layer, or a boron nitride layer, or both graphene and boron nitride layers are formed on a catalyst layer such as a metal layer. Examples of metal catalyst layers include, but are not limited to, copper catalyst layers and nickel catalyst layers. In an example the metal layer is a bulk surface. In examples, the metal layer is deposited on a smooth substrate, such as sapphire or another suitably smooth surface, and the graphene layer or boron nitride layer is grown by CVD on the metal layer. After growth of the graphene layer and/or boron nitride layer, the layers are assembled as described to form devices such as device **100** described above or device **150** described below.

As discussed above, the device **100** operates as a field-effect transistor (FET) device, such as using the first electrode **114** as a source (or drain) electrode, using the second electrode **116** as a corresponding drain (or source) electrode, and

using layer **108** as a gate. Such an example can be referred to as a back gate, because the gate layer **108** is located underneath the graphene layer **102**.

FIG. **1B** illustrates an example of a device **150** including a substrate **112** with or without a surface oxide **110**. Similar to FIG. **1A**, the device **150** includes a graphene layer **102** forming a direct interface with a boron nitride layer **104**, and electrodes **114** and **116** coupled to the graphene layer **102**. The example of FIG. **1B** illustrates an example of a top gate device, with the inclusion of a dielectric layer **152**, and a gate **154**. Although a boron nitride layer **104** of a given thickness on a substrate of a different material is shown, the invention is not so limited. In an embodiment, the boron nitride **104** includes a boron nitride substrate. An example of a boron nitride substrate can include a single crystal boron nitride wafer.

Placing a graphene layer on boron nitride can provide a number of advantages, as discussed in the description below. For example, a surface roughness of the boron nitride is significantly smoother than other substrates, which greatly improves electrical properties of the adjacent graphene layer. Electrical transport is also enhanced in graphene on boron nitride as a result of reduced charged impurities from the relatively inert BN surface. Boron nitride surfaces are relatively inert, due to in-plane bonding and tendency for fewer defects in a single-crystal boron nitride, compared with silicon or silicon oxide.

Using configurations such as shown in FIG. **1A**, use of a boron nitride layer not only improves electrical characteristics of the graphene layer, but it can also serve as a dielectric layer in a transistor structure.

Graphene devices on standard SiO₂ substrates are highly disordered, exhibiting characteristics far inferior to the expected intrinsic properties of graphene. While suspending graphene above the substrate yields substantial improvement in device quality, this geometry imposes limitations on device architecture and functionality. Obtaining suspended-like sample quality in a substrate supported geometry is desired.

This disclosure describes examples of fabrication and characterization of high quality exfoliated mono- and bilayer graphene (MLG and BLG) devices on single crystal hexagonal boron nitride (h-BN) substrates, by a mechanical transfer process. Variable-temperature magnetotransport measurements demonstrate that graphene devices on h-BN exhibit enhanced mobility, reduced carrier inhomogeneity, and reduced intrinsic doping in comparison with SiO₂-supported devices. The ability to assemble crystalline layered materials in a controlled way permits advancements in graphene electronics and enables fabrication of more complex graphene heterostructures.

The quality of substrate-supported graphene devices has not improved since the first observation of the anomalous quantum Hall effect in graphene and its bilayer. On SiO₂, the carrier mobility is limited by scattering from charged surface states and impurities, substrate surface roughness and SiO₂ surface optical phonons. Moreover, near the Dirac point substrate induced disorder breaks up the 2D electron gas (2DES) into an inhomogeneous network of electron and hole puddles, while charged impurities trapped in the substrate or at the graphene-substrate interface cause doping of the 2DES away from charge neutrality. Efforts to engineer alternatives to SiO₂ can involve other oxides, where similar surface effects continue to be problematic.

Hexagonal boron nitride (h-BN) is an appealing substrate dielectric for improved graphene-based devices. h-BN is an insulating isomorph of graphite with boron and nitrogen atoms occupying the inequivalent A and B sublattices in the

Bernal structure. The different onsite energies of the B and N atoms lead to a large (5.97 eV) band gap and a small (1.7%) lattice constant mismatch with graphite. Owing to the strong, in-plane, ionic bonding of the planar hexagonal lattice structure, h-BN is relatively inert and expected to be free of dangling bonds or surface charge traps. Furthermore, the atomically planar surface should suppress rippling in graphene, which has been shown to mechanically conform to both corrugated and flat substrates. The dielectric properties of h-BN ($\epsilon \sim 3-4$ and $V_{Breakdown} \sim 0.7$ V/nm) compare favorably with SiO₂, allowing the use of h-BN as a gate dielectric with no loss of functionality. Moreover, the surface optical phonon modes of h-BN have energies two times larger than similar modes in SiO₂, suggesting the possibility of improved high-temperature and high electric field performance of h-BN based graphene devices over those using typical oxide/graphene stacks.

In an example method of fabricating graphene-on-BN, a mechanical transfer process is used, illustrated in FIG. **2**. FIG. **2** shows optical images of graphene and h-BN before (a and b, respectively) and after (c) transfer. Scale bar in each is 10 μ m. Inset shows electrical contacts. (d) Schematic illustration of the transfer process to fabricate graphene-on-BN devices.

In an example, the h-BN flakes are exfoliated from ultrapure, hexagonal-BN single crystals. The optical contrast on 285 nm SiO₂/Si substrates is sufficient to easily identify h-BN flakes with thicknesses down to a single monolayer (see FIG. **2b**). FIG. **3** shows atomic force microscopy (AFM) images of mono layer graphene (MLG) transferred onto ~ 14 nm thick h-BN. The transferred graphene is free of wrinkles or distortions. FIG. **3** shows (a) AFM image of monolayer graphene on BN with electrical leads. White dashed lines indicate the edge of the graphene flake. Scale bar is 2 μ m. (b) Histogram of the height distribution (surface roughness) measured by AFM for SiO₂ (black triangles), h-BN (red circles) and graphene-on-BN (blue squares). Solid lines are Gaussian fits to the distribution. Inset: high resolution AFM image showing comparison of graphene and BN surfaces, corresponding to the dashed square in (a). Scale bar is 0.5 μ m.

A histogram of the roughness of graphene on h-BN (FIG. **3b**) shows it to be indistinguishable from bare h-BN and approximately three times less rough than SiO₂. This shows that the graphene membrane conforms to the atomically flat h-BN. Electronic transport measurements of MLG transferred onto h-BN indicate that the resulting two dimensional electronic systems are of high quality. FIG. **4a** shows the resistance of a typical MLG sample on h-BN as a function of applied back gate voltage, V_g . The resistivity peak, corresponding to the overall charge neutrality point (CNP), is extremely narrow and occurs at nearly zero gate voltage. The conductivity (dotted line inset in FIG. **4a**) is strongly sublinear in carrier density, indicating a crossover from scattering dominated by charge impurities at low density to short-range impurity scattering at large carrier density. The data is well fit (solid line in figure) by a self-consistent Boltzmann equation for diffusive transport that includes both long and short range scattering, $\sigma^{-1} = (ne\mu C + \sigma_o)^{-1} + \rho_s$, where μC is the density-independent mobility due to charged impurity Coulomb (long-range) scattering, ρ_s is the contribution to resistivity from short-range scattering, and σ_o is the residual conductivity at the CNP. We obtain $\mu C \sim 60,000$ cm²/Vs, three times larger than on SiO₂ using a similar analysis, and $\rho_s \sim 71 \Omega$, which is similar to values obtained on SiO₂. This indicates a threefold decrease in the scattering rate due to charge-impurities in this sample, but a similar degree of short range scattering, in comparison to the best SiO₂ samples. This suggests that the sublinear shape does not result from increased short

range scattering on BN substrates, but rather a substantially reduced charge impurity contribution, which reveals the effects of short range scattering at comparatively lower densities. Similar behavior was observed in more than 10 MLG samples and, importantly, a higher mobility for BN-supported graphene is shown as compared to portions of the same flake on the nearby SiO₂ surface. For the MLG device shown here, the Hall mobility is ~25,000 at high density, where short range scattering appears to dominate. Similar values of ρS between SiO₂ and h-BN supported-graphene samples suggests that scattering off ripples and out-of-plane vibrations may not be a significant contribution in samples since these are likely to be suppressed on atomically flat h-BN.

FIG. 4 shows: resistance versus applied gate voltage for (a) MLG and (b) bi-layer graphene (BLG) on h-BN. Inset in each panel shows the corresponding conductivity. For both devices, the temperature dependence of the conductivity minimum and high density resistivity are shown in (c) and (d), respectively. Solid and dashed lines in (d) are linear fits to the data. (e) Conductivity of a different MLG sample comparing the room-temperature transport characteristics measured as transferred-to-h-BN (blue curve) and after annealing in H₂/Ar (black curve).

The width of the resistivity peak at the CNP gives an estimate of the charge-carrier inhomogeneity resulting from electron-hole puddle formation at low density. In FIG. 4a the full width at half maximum (FWHM) of $\rho(V_g)$ is ~1 V, giving an upper bound for disorder-induced carrier density fluctuation of $\delta n < 7 \times 10^{10} \text{ cm}^{-2}$, a factor of ~3 improvement over SiO₂-supported samples. An alternate estimate of this inhomogeneity is obtained from the temperature dependence of the minimum conductivity. In FIG. 4c, σ_{min} increases by a factor of two between 4 K and 200 K. Such a strong temperature dependence has previously only been observed in suspended samples, with substrate-supported samples typically exhibiting <30% variation in the same range. σ_{min} is expected to vary with temperature only for $k_B T > E_{puddle}$ where for MLG $E_{puddle} \approx h\nu_f \sqrt{\pi \delta n}$. Here σ_{min} saturates to $\sim 6e^2/h$ for $T < 15 \text{ K}$ giving an upper bound of $\delta n \sim 109 \text{ cm}^{-2}$. The δn estimated by these two measures is consistent with similar analysis performed on suspended devices.

A bandgap can be induced in graphene aligned to an h-BN substrate. In our disclosure, the crystallographic orientation of graphene to the substrate can be controlled to any number of orientations. As a result, symmetry breaking effects can be controlled and avoided. Indeed, the temperature dependence of σ_{min} observed here does not follow a simply activated behavior, indicating no appreciable gap opening in this randomly stacked graphene on h-BN.

In an example, the crystallographic orientation of graphene to the substrate provides a non-zero lattice mismatch between the graphene lattice and the boron nitride lattice, as a result of mechanical placing of graphene in contact with boron nitride.

A graphene layer that is epitaxially grown on a substrate such as boron nitride may have a different lattice constant than boron nitride. However, even with different lattice constants, under epitaxial growth techniques, with a small degree of lattice strain, there will still be a substantial one-to-one alignment of carbon atoms in graphene with boron and nitrogen atoms in the boron nitride lattice.

In contrast to epitaxially grown graphene on boron nitride, with mechanical assembly as described in examples of the present invention, the graphene will not be significantly aligned to the h-BN substrate. In other words, there will not be a one-to-one correspondence of carbon atoms in the graphene lattice to a corresponding boron or nitrogen atom in the boron nitride lattice. Some degree of rotation about a line normal to

the interface plane between the graphene lattice and the boron nitride lattice provides the non-zero degree of lattice mismatch between the graphene layer and the boron nitride.

Using mechanical transfer techniques, absent any significant doping levels or other impurities which might otherwise modify lattice alignment, a substantially pure graphene layer can be brought into contact with a substantially pure boron nitride substrate with a non-zero degree of lattice mismatch. The mechanical assembly technique takes advantage of the smoothness of boron nitride, without unwanted bandgap effects from epitaxial lattice alignment between graphene and boron nitride.

Transport measurements from BLG transferred to h-BN are shown in FIG. 4b. The corresponding conductivity is linear in gate voltage up to large densities, as expected for BLG in the presence of long and short range scalar potential disorder. The (density-independent) electron and hole Hall mobilities are $\sim 60,000 \text{ cm}^2/\text{Vs}$ and $\sim 80,000 \text{ cm}^2/\text{Vs}$, respectively, at $T=2 \text{ K}$, with a value of $40,000 \text{ cm}^2/\text{Vs}$ measured at room temperature in air for this same device. The FWHM of the CNP resistivity peak is $\sim 1.2 \text{ V}$, giving an estimate of the carrier inhomogeneity density $\delta n \sim 9 \times 10^{10} \text{ cm}^{-2}$. Both the mobility and inhomogeneity are comparable to the best suspended BLG devices and almost an order of magnitude better than BLG on SiO₂. The temperature dependence of σ_{min} (blue circles in FIG. 4c) is much stronger than in MLG. We note that the BLG shown, although undoped immediately after sample fabrication and annealing, was contaminated upon insertion into a Helium flow cryostat; thereafter the CNP was found at $V_g \sim -27 \text{ V}$. The temperature dependence at the CNP can therefore be due in part to an electric field induced energy gap. The temperature dependence of the resistivity at high density for both MLG and BLG is shown in FIG. 4d. MLG resistance increases linearly with temperature (solid line in FIG. 4d) due to longitudinal acoustic (LA) phonon scattering:

$$\rho_{LA}(T) = \left(\frac{h}{e^2} \right) \frac{\pi^2 D_A^2 k_B T}{2 \hbar^2 \rho_s v_s^2 v_f^2}$$

where $\rho_s = 7.6 \times 10^{-7} \text{ kg/m}^2$ is the graphene mass density, $v_f = 1 \times 10^6 \text{ m/s}$ is the Fermi velocity, $v_s = 2 \times 10^4 \text{ m/s}$ is the LA phonon velocity and D_A is the acoustic deformation potential. Linear fits to the electron (hole) branches give $D_A \sim 18 \text{ eV}$ ($D_A \sim 21 \text{ eV}$). In contrast, BLG exhibits a very weak temperature dependence, with a slightly negative overall trend (dashed line in FIG. 4d). We note that no indication of activated remote surface phonon scattering is seen in MLG (BLG) up to 200 K (240 K).

The replacement of the SiO₂ substrate with h-BN appears to result in a marked change in the chemical properties of graphene devices. FIG. 4e shows the room temperature conductivity of a typical MLG layer before and after annealing in a H₂/Ar flow at 340° C. for 3.5 hrs. Annealing substantially enhances the carrier mobility while leaving the position of the CNP virtually unchanged. The low mobility immediately post transfer can be due to neutral transfer residues and/or local strains that are relaxed upon heating. The lack of doping after heating in H₂/Ar is in stark contrast to SiO₂ supported devices, where heat treatment typically results in heavy doping of the graphene, often more than $5 \times 10^{12} \text{ cm}^{-2}$, after re-exposure to air. The reduced chemical reactivity of graphene on h-BN is due to a combined effect of the chemically inert and gas impermeable h-BN surface together with reduced

roughness in the graphene film. Magnetotransport measurements provide further confirmation of the high material quality achieved in these samples.

FIG. 5 shows: (a) Longitudinal and Hall conductivity versus gate voltage at B=14 T (solid line) and 8.5 T (dashed line) for MLG. (b) Longitudinal and Hall resistance versus gate voltage at B=14 T for BLG. Inset shows a magnetic field sweep at fixed density. SdH oscillations begin at ~0.4 T with Landau Level (LL) symmetry breaking appearing at fields less than 6 T. T~2 K in both panels.

FIG. 5a shows the magnetoconductivity σ_{xx} and Hall conductivity σ_{xy} as a function of density at B=14 T for MLG, derived from simultaneous measurement of magnetoresistance R_{xx} and Hall resistance R_{xy} in the Hall bar geometry shown in FIG. 3. Complete lifting of the four-fold degeneracy of the zero energy Landau level (LL) is observed, with the additional quantum hall states at $\nu=0, +1, \pm 2$ exhibiting quantized Hall conductance $\sigma_{xy}=e^2/h$ together with vanishing σ_{xx} . The dashed line in FIG. 5a indicates that signatures of the $\nu=\pm 1$ quantum hall effect (QHE) are visible at fields as low as B=8.5 T, more than a factor of two smaller than reported for MLG on SiO₂.

A complete sequence of broken symmetry LLs are visible in BLG at B=14 T (FIG. 5b). In our device, the substrate supported geometry allows us to probe much higher density than possible in suspended devices of similar quality. Quantized Hall resistance is observed at $R_{xy}=(1/\nu) h/e^2$ concomitant with minima in R_{xx} for all integer filling factors from $\nu=1$ to at least $\nu=16$. Density sweeps at lower fields show that the lifting of the expected four-fold degeneracy in BLG is observable up to at least the fifth LL at fields as low as 5 T.

Complete quantization of the four-fold degenerate LLs and Shubnikov-de Haas oscillations is seen down to 2 and 0.4 T respectively. (see inset in FIG. 5b). In the lowest LL the $\nu=2$ quantum Hall state has a larger gap compared to the states at $\nu=1$ and 3, as judged by the depth of the R_{xx} minimum. Interestingly, in the second LL, the situation is reversed, with $\nu=6$ weaker than $\nu=5, 7$. As the LL index is increased, the trend in the gaps evolves back towards that observed in the lowest LL. A full understanding of symmetry breaking with increasing LL index is complicated by the fact that the applied gate voltage and residual extrinsic doping can both simultaneously break the layer degeneracy in BLG and modify the exchange energy. Analysis of this trend can be studied in dual gated devices where the transverse electric field can be tuned independently. Preservation of high mobility in dual-gated device can be achieved by fabricating h-BN-graphene-h-BN stacks using a two-transfer technique.

In an example, graphene-on-BN devices are fabricated according to the procedure illustrated in (FIG. 2d): (i) Fabrication can begin with the mechanical exfoliation of h-BN single crystals onto silicon wafers coated in 285 nm thermal oxide. Graphene is exfoliated separately onto a polymer stack including a water soluble layer (e.g. Mitsubishi Rayon aqua-SAVE) and PMMA, and the substrate is floated on the surface of a DI water bath; (ii) Once the water soluble polymer dissolves, the Si substrate sinks to the bottom of the bath leaving the extremely hydrophobic PMMA floating on top, (iii) The PMMA membrane is adhered to a glass transfer slide, which is clamped onto the arm of a micromanipulator mounted on an optical microscope. Using the microscope the graphene flake is precisely aligned to the target BN and the two are brought into contact. During transfer, the target substrate is heated to 110° C. such as to drive off any water adsorbed on the surface of the graphene or h-BN flakes as well as to promote good adhesion of the PMMA to the target substrate; (iv) Once transferred, the PMMA is dissolved in

acetone. Electrical leads are deposited using standard electron beam lithography, after which all our samples are annealed in flowing H₂/Ar gas at 340° C. for 3.5 hours to remove resist residues. The devices did not undergo any further treatment (e.g., in-situ vacuum annealing etc.) after removal from the H₂/Ar flow.

In an example, graphene-on-BN devices are fabricated using a mechanical transfer technique with a water soluble sacrificial layer replaced by a polyvinyl alcohol (PVA) layer. This allows mechanical peeling of the PMMA membrane without the need for exposing the graphene/PMMA substrate to a water bath, thereby achieving a fully dry transfer method. Some degree of rotation in the mechanical transfer about a line normal to the interface plane between the graphene lattice and the boron nitride lattice provides a non-zero degree of lattice mismatch between the graphene layer and the boron nitride.

In an example, the h-BN or the graphene, or both the h-BN and graphene are derived from a synthetic growth technique, in contrast to exfoliation from a bulk crystal. An example of a synthetic growth technique, as described above, includes CVD formation of h-BN and/or graphene on a separate surface.

A graphene layer and/or a boron nitride layer can be formed on a catalyst layer such as a metal layer. Examples of metal catalyst layers include, but are not limited to, copper catalyst layers, nickel catalyst layers, etc. In an example the metal layer is a bulk surface. In other examples, the metal layer is deposited on a smooth substrate, such as sapphire or another suitably smooth surface, and the graphene layer or boron nitride layer is grown by CVD on the metal layer.

After growth of the graphene layer and/or boron nitride layer, the graphene and boron nitride layers can be mechanically placed in contact with each other, to form an interface that enhances the electrical properties of the graphene. For example, a surface roughness of the boron nitride is significantly smoother than other substrates, which greatly improves electrical properties of the adjacent graphene layer. Electrical transport is also enhanced in graphene on boron nitride as a result of reduced charged impurities from the relatively inert BN surface. Boron nitride surfaces are relatively inert, due to in-plane bonding and tendency for fewer defects in a single-crystal boron nitride, compared with silicon or silicon oxide.

In an example, although the individual components of the graphene layer and/or boron nitride layer are grown synthetically, the interface between the graphene and the boron nitride is formed by mechanically combining the layers, which provides an interface with a non-zero degree of lattice mismatch between the graphene and the boron nitride. Some degree of rotation about a line normal to the interface plane between the graphene lattice and the boron nitride lattice provides the non-zero degree of lattice mismatch between the graphene layer and the boron nitride. In contrast, epitaxial growth techniques of forming graphene on boron nitride, by definition, result in alignment between the lattices.

A bandgap can be induced in epitaxial graphene aligned to an h-BN substrate. In contrast, configurations formed using mechanical transfer techniques described herein, provide a crystallographic orientation of graphene to the substrate that can be controlled to any number of orientations. As a result, symmetry breaking effects can be controlled and/or avoided.

In an example, the graphene and/or boron nitride layer are removed from the catalyst layer and assembled to form electrical devices such as transistors described herein. In an example, the catalyst layer is a sacrificial layer, and the graphene layer and/or boron nitride layer become separated

from the catalyst layer as a result of the destruction of the catalyst layer during synthesis of the graphene layer and/or boron nitride layer.

AFM images from FIG. 3 were acquired in air using silicon cantilevers operated in tapping mode. Surface roughness is reported as the standard deviation of the surface height distribution (determined by a fitted Gaussian), measured on a 0.3 μm^2 area. Transport measurements were acquired in a four-terminal geometry using standard lock-in techniques at ~ 17 Hz. Samples were cooled in a variable temperature (~ 2 –300 K) liquid He flow cryostat with the sample in vapor.

Before transferring graphene, the surface of every target h-BN flake is first characterized by atomic force microscopy to ensure it is free of contaminants or step edges, and also to measure its thickness. FIG. 6 *a-b* shows an example optical and AFM image of a clean h-BN surface after transfer onto a SiO_2 substrate. While the texture of the SiO_2 surface is visibly apparent, the h-BN surface looks completely devoid of any features on this scale.

FIG. 6 shows: (a) Optical image of a representative h-BN flake exfoliated onto a Si/SiO_2 substrate. (b) AFM image of the region indicated in (a) by a dashed box. scale-bar is 0.5 μm . The h-BN surface seen here measures ~ 8 nm in height relative to the SiO_2 background. At this scale it is apparent the h-BN surface is much smoother than the underlying SiO_2 substrate. (c) Height histogram of the h-BN surface measured for several different sample-thicknesses. A typical measurement from a SiO_2 surface (solid black squares) and a highly ordered pyrolytic graphite (HOPG) wafer (open black circles) are shown for comparison. (d) h-BN surface roughness versus sample thickness measured from several different samples. Solid line is a guide-to-the-eye. Dashed line indicates resolution of our system, obtained by measuring the surface of HOPG under the same conditions.

FIG. 6c shows a histogram of the measured surface roughness for h-BN flakes of varying thicknesses. Measurements from a typical SiO_2 substrate, and from a calibration HOPG wafer are also shown, for comparison. All data was acquired on a 300 nm^2 scan window. The SiO_2 surface roughness, given by the standard deviation of a fitted Gaussian, is measured to be ~ 185 nm. The HOPG surface roughness is ~ 70 nm, which, since the HOPG wafer is atomically flat over large areas, is taken to be the resolution limit of our measurement. As seen in FIG. 6d, the h-BN surface roughness approaches the measured HOPG roughness for flakes thicker than approximately 5 nm.

FIG. 7 shows: (a) Representative conductivity curves measured for three different MLG samples transferred to h-BN. Legend indicates the corresponding mobility extracted by fitting to the Boltzmann model from the main paper. (b) Resistivity measured on a single flake spanning both BN and SiO_2 substrate regions. Inset left shows corresponding conductivities. Inset right shows optical image of the sample where the dashed line outlines the graphene. $T \sim 4$ K in both (a) and (b).

FIG. 7a shows conductivity curves measured from three representative MLG layers transferred to h-BN. The mobilities indicated in the figure are extracted from fits using the same equation as in the main text. Similar to on SiO_2 , there appears to be a correlation between sample quality and the charge neutrality position as well as the width of the conductivity minimum. Specifically, high quality samples coincide with a sharply defined conductivity minimum occurring near zero backgate, whereas, poorer quality samples exhibit broader minima further away from zero backgate voltage. This is consistent with the mobility enhancement observed in graphene-on-h-BN resulting from a reduction of charged

impurities, relative to graphene on SiO_2 . Further evidence of this is shown in FIG. 7b, where portions of the same graphene flake are measured both on h-BN and on SiO_2 .

While on h-BN the graphene exhibits a very narrow resistivity peak, occurring nearly at zero gate voltage, on SiO_2 the same flake is significantly doped (VCNP ~ 25 Volts), and shows a broad peak. From the corresponding conductivity curves (shown inset in FIG. 7) we measure a mobility for the h-BN and SiO_2 supported regions of the same graphene flake to be $\sim 20,000$ cm^2/Vs and $\sim 2,000$ cm^2/Vs , respectively. While variation in sample quality, within the same graphene flake, is observed on samples supported only by SiO_2 , we always observe a higher mobility on h-BN relative to SiO_2 , when measuring a portion of the same flake on both surfaces.

FIG. 8 shows Magnetoresistance (blue curve) and Hall resistance (red curve) versus B field of the BLG sample on h-BN. $T \sim 4$ K and $n = 7.8 \times 10^{11} \text{ cm}^{-2}$. Landau Levels between 5 and 14 Tesla are labeled. Inset shows low field SdH oscillations, measured under the same conditions. FIG. 9 shows Magnetoresistance versus gate voltage of the same sample. Upper panel shows symmetry breaking in the lowest energy Landau level (e.g. $\nu < 4$). Lower panel shows symmetry breaking of the higher order Landau levels. The data is plotted versus filling factor for easier comparisons between different magnetic fields.

FIG. 8 shows an enlargement of the magneto-transport measured from BLG on h-BN presented in FIG. 5. Landau levels (LL's) are labeled between 5 and 14 Tesla, indicating that appearance of the four-fold symmetry breaking is visible down to approximately 5 Tesla. Complete quantization of the four-fold degenerate Landau levels, evidence by both quantization in R_{xy} , and a zero value minimum in is observed down to approximately 2 Tesla. The inset of FIG. 8 shows the low field Shubnikov de Haas oscillations, which are visible down to as low as 0.4 Tesla.

Magnetoresistance measured at fixed field, but varying backgate voltage, are shown for several different fields in FIG. 9. Minima in between the otherwise four-fold degenerate LL's, for LL index greater than $\nu = 4$, begin to emerge at ~ 5 Tesla, becoming fully quantized for all integer fillings up to at least $\nu = 20$ at 14 Tesla. In the lowest energy LL, where the $n = 0$ and $n = 1$ levels are doubly degenerate, the $\nu = 2$ quantum Hall state shows a deep broad minimum at fields well below 5 Tesla.

Graphene field-effect transistors (GFETs) can benefit from engineering the dielectric interfaces to the graphene, both the supporting dielectric and the top gate dielectric. GFETs can be fabricated on doped silicon substrates with a 300 nm thick SiO_2 layer. Carrier density modulation is then achieved by biasing the silicon, or by employing a lithography step to deposit a local top-gate coupled to the graphene through a high- κ gate dielectric grown on the graphene. The deposition of these top-gate dielectrics often involves the initial deposition of a noncovalent functionalization layer absorbed on the graphene surface.

Both the top-gate oxide and supporting oxide substrate significantly degrade the electronic properties of the graphene. Charged impurities trapped in the dielectrics or at the graphene dielectric interfaces dope the graphene, significantly degrade mobility, and result in hysteretic current-voltage characteristics. Surface polar optical phonons from the substrate further limit room temperature and high-field transport and achievable saturation velocities. Transistor measurements of GFETs using hexagonal boron nitride (h-BN) are shown as both supporting substrate and local-gate dielectric, resulting in dramatically improved transistor current voltage characteristics.

FIG. 10 shows the basic structure of the back-gated (GFET) using h-BN dielectrics. The use of a backgated topology allows us to have to only contend with a single graphene-dielectric interface. h-BN is an appealing dielectric material for GFETs because it is an insulating isomorph of graphite (FIG. 10a) with boron and nitrogen atoms occupying the inequivalent A and B sublattices in the Bernal structure. h-BN is inert and free of dangling bonds and surface charge traps. The bandgap (5.97 eV) and dielectric properties of h-BN ($\epsilon \sim 3.4$ and $V_{Breakdown} \sim 0.7$ V/nm) compare favorably with SiO₂. The excellent thermal conductivity of h-BN, 600 higher than silicon dioxide, is also advantageous for FET applications such as to reduce or minimize device heating.

To fabricate graphene-on-BN, we can employ a mechanical transfer process in which h-BN layers are exfoliated from ultrapure h-BN single crystals. The devices shown in FIG. 10d and measured here have a dielectric thickness of approximately 8.5 nm. Graphene on h-BN (as measured by atomic force microscopy) is approximately three times less rough than on SiO₂. Cr/Au (1 nm/90 nm) electrodes are used as Ohmic contacts, producing p-type doping of the graphene under the contacts because of work-function differences.

FIG. 11 shows the channel resistance ($1/g_{ds}$) at $V_{ds}=10$ mV as a function of V_{gs} for a $W/L=3.4 \mu\text{m}/2.8 \mu\text{m}$ device. Low-field mobility of these devices exceeds $10,000 \text{ cm}^2/\text{V}\cdot\text{sec}$. The carrier concentration in the channel is given by FIG. 15 (Eqn. 1), where $n_0 \approx 2.2 \times 10^{11} \text{ cm}^{-2}$ is the minimum sheet carrier concentration as determined by disorder and thermal excitation. $C_g (\approx 363 \text{ nF/cm}^2)$ is given by the parallel combination of the electrostatic capacitance of the gate and the quantum capacitance of graphene (which ultimately limits achievable gate capacitances). There is almost no net extrinsic doping of the graphene channel with $V_0 \approx 0.07$ V with a gate voltage hysteresis of less than 10 mV at room temperature. BN supported devices are found to be more stable compared to their SiO₂ supported counterparts, as heating and high-bias stress have virtually no effect on the transport characteristics. For a p-type channel (matching the doping of the source and drain contacts), the contact resistance is approximately $673 \Omega/\mu\text{m}^2$. n-type channels show a contact resistance that is approximately 31% higher for this device geometry because of the additional resistance of the p-n junction at the source/drain. Subsequent large-signal characterization uses these devices as pFETs.

FIG. 12 shows the measured I-V characteristics of GFETs of channel lengths $3 \mu\text{m}$, $1 \mu\text{m}$, and $0.44 \mu\text{m}$. In the unipolar regime, $V_{sd} < V_{sd-kinf}$, the GFETs show saturating I-V characteristics. Because these devices are still limited by contact resistance, we show the intrinsic device IV characteristic (FIG. 13) after the extraction of the measured contact resistance. The $0.44\text{-}\mu\text{m}$ -channel-length device shows an intrinsic I_{on} of more than $1 \text{ mA}/\mu\text{m}$. FIG. 16 shows the intrinsic transconductances for this same $0.44\text{-}\mu\text{m}$ device as a function of V_{sd} for different values of V_{gs} . The peak intrinsic transconductance, obtained after the extraction of the contact resistance exceeds 400 mS/mm and is independent of channel lengths (FIG. 14), consistent with velocity-saturation-dominated transport. This value is approximately 2.6 times higher than values on SiO₂-supported samples, even though the effective gate capacitance is 30% lower.

FIG. 15 outlines the basic field-effect modeling of the devices (these model fits are shown in FIG. 13). The carrier-dependent saturation velocity (v_{sat}) which assumes the simple nonequilibrium Fermi surface shown in FIG. 15a is given by the expression in Eqn. 3, and approaches v_F for $\hbar\Omega \gg E_F$. Furthermore, we explicitly include the density dependence of v_{sat} self-consistently in the current-voltage

model. FIG. 17 shows v_{sat} as a function of $1/\sqrt{n}$ (for an overdrive sufficiently large to ensure a unipolar channel) where n is taken at the drain end of the channel. v_{sat} exceeds $1.14 \times 10^7 \text{ cm/sec}$ at sheet densities of more than $4.5 \times 10^{12} \text{ cm}^{-2}$, more than two times higher than results on SiO₂-supported devices with high- κ gate dielectrics. The slope of the curves indicates an optical phonon energy of approximately 40 meV, significantly less than the surface polar optical phonon energy of 100 meV for BN. FIGS. 10-17 are further discussed below:

FIG. 10 shows a back-gated GFET with h-BN gate dielectric. (a) Atomic structure of graphene and hexagonal boron nitride (b) optical micrograph of exfoliated h-BN (c) AFM image of h-BN showing different layer thickness (d) optical image of GFET; (e) schematic of the back-gated device structure in (d).

FIG. 11 shows Low-field transport characteristics of GFET device. $R=1/g_{ds}$ at $V_{ds}=10$ mV as a function of V_{gs} for $W/L=3.4 \text{ mm}/2.8 \text{ mm}$.

FIG. 12 shows current-voltage characteristics of GFET devices. (a) $3 \mu\text{m}$ channel length, (b) $1 \mu\text{m}$ channel length, (c) $0.44 \mu\text{m}$ channel length for $V_{gs}=2\text{V}$ to 0V in 0.5V steps.

FIG. 13 show intrinsic device IV characteristics. Intrinsic IV curves after the contact resistance extraction from the measured curves of FIG. 3. Channel length of (a) $3 \mu\text{m}$; (b) $1 \mu\text{m}$; and (c) $0.44 \mu\text{m}$. Model fits (solid lines) are shown along with measured data.

FIG. 14 shows maximum intrinsic transconductance (g_m) as a function of channel length. The dashed line shows the average value of 415 mS/mm .

FIG. 15 shows GFET Modeling. (a) shows the nonequilibrium Fermi surface used for the modeling (b) equations used for field-effect modeling. $E(k)$ is the complete elliptic integral of the second kind; $K(k)$ is the complete elliptic integral of the first kind.

FIG. 16 shows intrinsic small-signal transconductance (g_m) as a function of drain-to-source voltage (V_{sd}) for $0.44 \mu\text{m}$ channel length.

FIG. 17 shows saturation velocity plotted versus square root of the drain density for different channel lengths as extracted from the model fits. The dashed line shows a slope corresponding to $\hbar\Omega=40 \text{ meV}$.

The RF performance of GFETs, as determined by the device current-gain cut-off frequency (f_T), has gone from 15 GHz for 500-nm-length devices in the first measurements to 155 GHz at 40-nm channel lengths.

RF measurements for top-gated device structures exhibit current-voltage characteristics that do not show strong current saturation due to relatively poor gate oxide interfaces or weak gate coupling. As a result, device output conductance is high, power gain is limited, and the maximum oscillation frequency (f_{max}) is typically only one tenth of f_T . In this work, by exploiting high-quality boron nitride dielectrics, we instead find f_{max}/f_T ratios as high as 0.86 and f_{max} values as high as 34 GHz for a 600-nm-length device, the highest value reported so far for GFETs. We further investigate the bias dependence of both f_T and f_{max} and compare our results with small-signal models of our device structures.

Hexagonal boron nitride (h-BN) can be an outstanding gate dielectric for GFETs, yielding interfaces nearly free of trapped charge and maintaining high mobility and carrier velocities in the graphene channel. The GFETs characterized here are created with a back gate as shown in FIG. 18a. A split-gate layout is employed, where tungsten metal gates are initially patterned into a $1\text{-}\mu\text{m}$ SiO₂ layer using a Damascene-like process, followed by a chemical-mechanical polishing (CMP) step to ensure a flat surface and expose the gate metal

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surface. h-BN (10-nm thick) is mechanically transferred to form the gate dielectric, followed by the mechanical transfer of the graphene channel (single layer). GFET fabrication ends with e-beam patterning of source and drain contacts with approximately 50-nm gate-to-source and gate-to-drain spacings as shown in FIG. 18a. An SEM micrograph of a completed device is shown in FIG. 18b.

FIG. 19 shows the DC current-voltage (IV) characteristic of a representative GFET device with an effective width of approximately 38 μm and channel length of 0.6 μm . The inset of FIG. 19 shows the accompanying source-drain resistance in the triode region at $V_{sd}=10$ mV, from which the contact resistance and low-field mobility can be extracted. The total contact resistance (including both source and drain) is approximately 25 Ω , or 950 $\Omega\text{-}\mu\text{m}$ when normalized to contact width. (Contact resistance is inversely proportional to contact width.) The low-field mobility is 3,300 $\text{cm}^2/\text{V sec}$. The charge neutrality point (V_o), the gate-to-source voltage at which the maximum low-field triode resistance is achieved, is 0.6 V. IV characteristics are plotted for gate voltages (V_{sg}) from 0 to -1.5V, demonstrating both saturating current characteristics for the unipolar hole channel and the “kink” associated with the transition to the ambipolar hole-electron channel.

Device S-parameters are measured to 40 GHz. Standard “open-short” de-embedding methods are employed. In FIG. 20, current-gain (h_{21}) and unilateral power gain (U) are plotted at the bias point of peak gain, yielding f_T and f_{max} of 44 GHz and 34 GHz, respectively. (Without de-embedding f_T and f_{max} are 24 GHz and 17 GHz, respectively.)

FIG. 21a shows how the f_{max} performance could be improved to 58 GHz for this same channel length if the V_o of the device could be adjusted (through a secondary gate or channel doping) to align peak g_m and r_o . The model is also used to estimate the performance at shorter channel lengths by scaling gate capacitance while keeping other small-signal parameters constant as shown in FIG. 21b. f_{max} values close to 250 GHz are possible at 100 nm channel length. Higher frequency performance will require significant improvements in device parasitics, most notably the contact resistance.

In the above detailed description of the invention, reference is made to the accompanying drawings that form a part hereof and in which are shown, by way of illustration, specific embodiments in which the invention may be practiced. These embodiments are described in sufficient detail to enable those skilled in the art to practice the invention. Other embodiments may be utilized and structural, logical, and electrical changes may be made.

While a number of embodiments of the invention are described, the above lists are not intended to be exhaustive. Although specific embodiments have been illustrated and described herein, it will be appreciated by those of ordinary skill in the art that any arrangement that is calculated to achieve the same purpose may be substituted for the specific embodiment shown. This application is intended to cover any adaptations or variations of the present invention. It is to be understood that the above description is intended to be illustrative and not restrictive.

The above detailed description includes references to the accompanying drawings, which form a part of the detailed description. The drawings show, by way of illustration, specific embodiments in which the invention can be practiced. These embodiments are also referred to herein as “examples.” Such examples can include elements in addition to those shown or described. However, the present inventors also contemplate examples in which only those elements shown or described are provided. Moreover, the present inventors also

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contemplate examples using any combination or permutation of those elements shown or described (or one or more aspects thereof), either with respect to a particular example (or one or more aspects thereof), or with respect to other examples (or one or more aspects thereof) shown or described herein.

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In this document, the terms “a” or “an” are used, as is common in patent documents, to include one or more than one, independent of any other instances or usages of “at least one” or “one or more.” In this document, the term “or” is used to refer to a nonexclusive or, such that “A or B” includes “A but not B,” “B but not A,” and “A and B,” unless otherwise indicated. In the appended claims, the terms “including” and “in which” are used as the plain-English equivalents of the respective terms “comprising” and “wherein.” Also, in the following claims, the terms “including” and “comprising” are open-ended, that is, a system, device, article, or process that includes elements in addition to those listed after such a term in a claim are still deemed to fall within the scope of that claim. Moreover, in the following claims, the terms “first,” “second,” and “third,” etc. are used merely as labels, and are not intended to impose numerical requirements on their objects.

The above description is intended to be illustrative, and not restrictive. For example, the above-described examples (or one or more aspects thereof) may be used in combination with each other. Other embodiments can be used, such as by one of ordinary skill in the art upon reviewing the above description. The Abstract is provided to comply with 37 C.F.R. §1.72(b), to allow the reader to quickly ascertain the nature of the technical disclosure. It is submitted with the understanding that it will not be used to interpret or limit the scope or meaning of the claims. Also, in the above Detailed Description, various features may be grouped together to streamline the disclosure. This should not be interpreted as intending that an unclaimed disclosed feature is essential to any claim. Rather, inventive subject matter may lie in less than all features of a particular disclosed embodiment. Thus, the following claims are hereby incorporated into the Detailed Description, with each claim standing on its own as a separate embodiment, and it is contemplated that such embodiments can be combined with each other in various combinations or permutations. The scope of the invention should be determined with reference to the appended claims, along with the full scope of equivalents to which such claims are entitled.

What is claimed is:

1. A method of forming a graphene field effect transistor comprising:

forming a graphene layer using chemical vapor deposition techniques;

mechanically placing the graphene layer on a boron nitride layer, wherein the graphene layer is placed with a non-zero degree of lattice mismatch with the boron nitride layer to reduce a bandgap effect during operation of the transistor;

forming a pair of source/drain regions coupled to the graphene layer, defining a graphene channel region located therebetween; and

coupling a gate electrode adjacent to the graphene channel region, and electrically separated from the graphene channel region.

2. The method of claim 1, wherein the forming the graphene layer using chemical vapor deposition techniques includes forming the graphene layer using a sacrificial catalyst layer. 5

3. The method of claim 2, wherein the forming the graphene layer using a sacrificial catalyst layer includes forming the graphene layer using a metallic catalyst layer. 10

4. A method of forming a graphene field effect transistor comprising:

forming a pair of source/drain regions on a graphene layer, defining a graphene channel region located therebetween; 15

forming a boron nitride layer using chemical vapor deposition techniques;

mechanically placing the boron nitride layer on the graphene layer, forming an interface having a non-zero degree of lattice mismatch with the graphene channel region to reduce a bandgap effect during operation of the transistor; and 20

coupling a gate electrode adjacent to the graphene channel region, and electrically separated from the graphene channel region. 25

5. The method of claim 4, wherein the forming the boron nitride layer using chemical vapor deposition techniques includes forming the boron nitride layer using a sacrificial catalyst layer.

6. The method of claim 5, wherein the forming the boron nitride layer using a sacrificial catalyst layer includes forming the boron nitride layer using a metallic catalyst layer. 30

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